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ABSTRACT

Professional development schools (PDS) offer significant promise for restructuring university-school district relationships around a common agenda of modeling exemplary practice, preparing teachers, and conducting research. Central to the success of such efforts will be the development of shared vision regarding the teaching profession and the establishment of norms that emphasize parity among and respect for members of the profession who occupy different roles, as well as reflectiveness about teaching and learning for all who populate such schools, and shared governance. This paper traces the development of the PDS concept and discusses issues related to establishing such schools. Topics include PDS goals, characteristics, rationale, and conceptual bases. Laboratory and model school precedents are also discussed. Issues considered include traditional differences in university and school cultures, financial support, and equity. (IAH)

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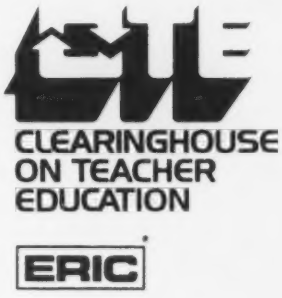

PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SCHOOLS: TOWARD A NEW RELATIONSHIP FOR SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES

Raphael O. Nystrand
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PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SCHOOLS: TOWARD A NEW RELATIONSHIP FOR SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITIES

The concept of professional development schools (PDS) was introduced as part of the educational reform rhetoric in the mid-1980s. Although the term has been used frequently since then and many educators purport to work in or be about establishing such schools (Yinger & Hendricks, 1990), the literature is characterized by a lack of research about or even descriptions of how they operate. At this point, the professional development school is best thought of as an ideal type toward which reform-minded schools are striving. The purpose of this Trends and Issues Paper is to trace the development of the PDS concept and to discuss issues related to establishing such schools.

The notion of PDS took shape as part of the "second wave" of educational reform in the United States. In contrast to the initial reform efforts of the eighties that stressed academic rigor and blamed teachers for low student performance, these efforts focused on the professionalization of teaching. In particular, the Carnegie Task Force (1986) and the Holmes Group (1986) called for new types of schools to support the initial preparation and continuing education of teachers. Carnegie referred to these proposed institutions as "clinical schools"; the Holmes Group called them "Professional Development Schools."

Both Carnegie and Holmes invoked the analogy of teaching hospitals to communicate the vision they hold for these schools. Carnegie referred to them as "outstanding public schools working closely with schools of education...[that]...should exemplify the collegial, performance-oriented environment that newly certified teachers should be prepared to establish" (p. 76). Holmes said such schools

> ...will bring practicing teachers and administrators together with university faculty in partnerships based on the following principles:

reciprocity or mutual exchange and benefit between research and practice;

experimentation or willingness to try new forms of practice and structure;

systematic inquiry or the requirement that new ideas be subject to careful study and validation; and

student diversity, or commitment to the development of teaching strategies for a broad range of children with different backgrounds, abilities, and learning styles (p. 67).

The Carnegie and Holmes proposals for PDS were well received by many educational professionals and policymakers. A number of universities and school districts have worked to develop such schools. Indeed, commitment to do this is one of the principal tenets of membership for the approximately 100 universities that belong to the Holmes Group.

The first major project of this new consortium was development of a monograph that sets forth principles for PDS design (Holmes, 1990). However, this initiative has gone well beyond the Holmes membership. Some institutions with a history of school-university collaboration viewed these proposals as consistent with their earlier efforts. Encouraged by the attention created by PDS rhetoric, they intensified their activities. Others were motivated to begin new projects.

State and national policymakers have also been impressed by the concept. For example, a commission to study teaching in Massachusetts recommended that joint establishment of PDS by schools and universities be encouraged through a state program of competitive grants (Special Commission on the Conditions of Teaching, 1987). More recently, the U.S. Congress included grant support to encourage school-university collaboration toward the establishment of PDS in both the House and Senate versions of

1990 education legislation. Although these provisions were omitted from the final version of this legislation by the joint conference committee, similar measures will probably be considered by the 1991 Congress.

Goals

A number of goals have been set forth for professional development schools. Schlechty, Ingwerson, and Brooks, who have pioneered in the implementation of PDS in Jefferson County, Kentucky, envision a two-fold mission of "providing exemplary programs for students while providing for the systematic induction of new teachers and administrators into the school system" (1988, p. 28-29). The American Federation of Teaching Task Force on Professional Development Schools identified three missions: "(1) to support student learning; (2) to support the professional education of teachers; and (3) to support inquiry directed at practice" (Levine, 1988, p. 7).

The Holmes Group also explicates goals of demonstrating effective practice, inducting individuals into the profession, and encouraging research. They elaborate these points by stating that PDS should help the teaching profession by:

> promoting much more ambitious conceptions of teaching and learning on the part of prospective teachers in universities and students in schools;
>
> adding to and reorganizing the collections of knowledge we have about teaching and learning;
>
> ensuring that enterprising, relevant, responsible research and development is done in schools;

linking experienced teachers' efforts to renew their knowledge and advance their status with efforts to improve their schools and to prepare new teachers;

creating incentives for faculties in the public schools and faculties in education schools to work mutually; and

strengthening the relationship between schools and the broader political, social, and economic communities in which they reside (Holmes, 1990, p. 1-2).

The relative emphasis on PDS as a strategy for school improvement, professional induction and development, and field-based inquiry varies from site to site. At one level, each of these can be seen as a fairly modest goal that can be approached independently and incrementally. A strong case can be made for at least beginning in this way, for the sustained commitment of participants is likely to be fostered by their recognized success in a series of "little tries" (Schlechty et al., 1988). However, it is also clear that these goals can and should be considered on a much grander scale. Taken together (and most if not all who write about PDS see them as interrelated), they propose fundamental changes in schools, universities, and the profession of teaching at all institutional levels.

Rationale and Conceptual Bases

The rationale for establishing PDS rests on the premise that university and school personnel have shared interests in the improvement of both schools and teacher education. Higher education's concern for school improvement transcends the generalized support for educational reform that characterizes other civic and economic institutions, because colleges and universities are increasingly concerned about the academic ability of their

entering students. Collaboration with the public schools is seen as a strategy for addressing this issue (Bok, 1987; Maeroff, 1983). Because schools and colleges of education have traditionally been the strongest links between universities and schools, they can play a critical role in forging new relationships. The expectation, however, is that school improvement will increasingly become the interest and activity of other parts of universities, especially colleges of arts and sciences (Holmes, 1986, 1990).

Just as schools supply colleges and universities with students, the reverse pertains to the supply of teachers. Thus, schools have a clear interest in strengthening the processes for recruiting and preparing teachers. Establishment of PDS affords teachers who criticize their own preparation and that of their colleagues an opportunity to act on their concerns. In this respect, the concept reinforces the conventional wisdom that practice teaching is the most valued element in teacher preparation. More importantly, it provides a means to recognize and act upon the arguments that beginning teachers should be provided with systematic induction and mentoring support systems (Bird & Little, 1986; Schlechty, 1985). The importance of such support is at least threefold: it provides beginning teachers with welcome psychological support at a time of career stress; it provides school districts with a means of assuring that new teachers are socialized to district norms and procedures; and it gives added responsibility to mentoring teachers, thereby enhancing their status as professionals.

The concept of teachers as professionals is an essential element of the PDS rationale (Carnegie, 1986; Holmes, 1986; Levine & Gendler, 1988; Whitford & Hovda, 1986). Teachers are viewed as knowledgeable and committed workers who seek a greater voice in decisions affecting their work and who, in return, are willing to accept responsibility for these decisions. This view of teacher professionalism also implies greater differentiation among teacher roles, thereby providing time for collegial decision-making classroom research and mentoring of new teachers.

The creation of PDS also assumes collaboration on the part of school and university personnel. This assumption challenges traditional status relationships in which school personnel have been expected to defer to their "better educated" colleagues at the university. In the PDS model, teachers and local administrators are no less than full partners in teacher preparation as well as school operation. The sources of authority most valued in these schools are knowledge and experience. Thus, teachers may be viewed as the most appropriate decision makers on matters affecting their classrooms. On the other hand, university personnel can bring a perspective to classroom issues that is rooted in the literature, as well as observation and reflection about practice. Teachers and faculty members in PDS will be sensitive to these differences and value them as bases for meaningful collaboration.

Not all schools are envisioned as professional development schools. In this respect, the rationale for PDS builds upon the more general reform literature that acknowledges the importance of individual schools as targets of reform, recognizes that individual schools will approach reform objectives from different directions and at different rates of speed, and assumes that the success of individual schools will be noted and replicated by others. The advantages of focusing on a limited number of sites as PDS include the ability to (1) select interested participants, (2) provide supplementary resources (e.g., staff time, equipment, travel money), (3) design and carry out significant research projects, and (4) monitor systematically processes and assess outcomes. As noted earlier, these schools will be seen as exemplars of effective practice (Levine, 1988; Schlechty et al., 1988), and it is assumed that the best of what they do will be recognized and emulated in other locales.

Historical Perspectives: The Laboratory School Precedent

Proposals to establish PDS evoke memories of laboratory or model schools operated on university campuses. Although many universities still

operate such schools, their numbers have dwindled substantially in the past half century. Dishner and Boothby (1986) cite a number of reasons for this decline including university financial constraints, concern that laboratory school student populations were atypical of those with whom prospective teachers would work, the transition of state teachers' colleges to multipurpose state universities, increased use of public schools as sites for student field experiences, and reluctance of university faculty to involve themselves in laboratory school activities. Smith, Silverman, Borg, and Fry (1980) observed that the primary factor in the decline of laboratory schools was the dramatic increase in the numbers of students entering teacher education at mid-century. Lacking space to prepare their students in campus-based schools, colleges and universities turned increasingly to the public schools as sites for field experiences.

In its ideal form, the laboratory school reflects many of the characteristics envisioned for professional development schools. For example, Goodlad (1980) identified five functions of laboratory schools: "...education of the children enrolled according to the best established principles; the development of new and innovative practices...; research, inquiry, and the development of theory...; preparation of new teachers...; and the inservice education of experienced teachers" (p. 47). There is evidence that laboratory schools enjoyed some success with at least parts of this agenda. For example, Chase (1980) credits the University of Chicago Laboratory School as giving impetus to John Dewey's theories regarding child development and curriculum and the early work of Henry C. Morrison on mastery learning.

The overall history of laboratory and demonstration schools suggests that these institutions fall short of the integrated approach to demonstrating exemplary practice, inducting new professionals, and advancing knowledge that is envisioned for professional development schools. From their earliest days, these schools have been limited in their ability to blend attention to knowledge development and implementation with the induction of new

professionals. Powell (1988) points out that the earliest experimental schools, such as the Dewey School at the University of Chicago and the Lincoln School at Teachers College, had no involvement with teacher education. Faculty in these schools saw their role as teaching their students and developing curriculum materials but not inducting new professionals. Powell contrasts these schools with the model schools organized on many university campuses that were used extensively for student teaching. Even in these situations, he points out, there was relatively little contact and coordination between the model school faculty and school of education faculty in the preparation of beginning teachers. While each worked with practice teachers, they did so from independent perspectives.

Laboratory school faculty members have been employed primarily because of their skill and interest in teaching young people. Their main client groups are students and their parents who pay tuition and expect first-rate education in return. These conditions encourage an emphasis on teaching according to what is known "best" practice rather than experimentation with different approaches, research, or attention to the needs of teacher interns who may be assigned to the building.

University faculty on the other hand are employed primarily because of their knowledge and ability to do research in a very specific area. They view laboratory schools primarily as a site to conduct their research and as a place where prospective teachers can experiment with the "cutting edge" ideas imparted to them by professors. Goodlad (1980) points out that such differences in functional emphases and values have been important reasons that laboratory schools have not fulfilled their complex mission. The lesson of laboratory schools' history is that resolution of these and other issues including the acquisition of necessary resources will be fundamental to designing successful professional development schools.

Characteristics of Professional Development Schools

Professional development schools are defined more readily by their purposes than their operating characteristics. There is widespread professional agreement that these are schools which model exemplary practice, serve as induction sites for new professionals and continuing development for experienced ones, and contribute new knowledge about teaching and learning. The question of what a school should look like to achieve these purposes is not easily answered. Part of the reason for this may be that the concept of PDS is so broad that it is difficult to act upon comprehensively. Several authors have written about conditions necessary to fulfill particular functions in professional development schools. For example, Schlechty (1985) has offered perspectives on the conditions which must exist for the successful induction of new professionals; Lieberman and Miller (1990) and Kyle and Hovda (1987) have discussed conditions to support teacher development; and Kennedy (1988) outlined requirements for educating novice teachers in such settings. Others (Sirotnik & Goodlad, 1988; Jones & Maloy, 1988) have discussed conditions for strengthening collaboration between schools and universities.

Two efforts at generalizing about the characteristics of professional development schools were those of Houston (1988) and the Holmes Group (1990). In an article entitled "Professional Practice Schools: How Would We Know One If We Saw One?", Houston suggested nine standards for assessing professional development schools. They are as follows:

> Students are provided opportunities to demonstrate their knowledge and know-how in ways that are responsibly diverse, thus providing teachers, parents, policymakers, and students themselves with multiple and authentic indices of learning.

Teachers combine the necessary knowledge and know-how to contribute to student success.

Teachers understand the mission of the institution and their individual roles and responsibilities.

The educational program is shaped by a governing body at the school site where policies and procedures are written, available to the public, and subject to appeal processes.

Appropriate assessment procedures for students, teachers (both novice and experienced), administrators, and support staff are established.

Provisions are made for professional development activities that build from assessments and accord with the school's plans.

Resources provided to the Professional Practice School are adequate to support a high quality education program for students and teachers and are responsibly managed at the school site.

The induction of novice teachers into the teaching profession is structured to provide maximum opportunity for responsible experimentation on teaching and learning.

There is evidence of an orientation to educational problem solving and research that is experimental in nature.

As noted above, the Holmes Group was among the early advocates of PDS. An early activity of the group was to convene a series of seminars of school and university representatives to discuss the design of professional

development schools. These seminars led to a report endorsed by the Holmes membership that specifies six principles for the development of professional development schools. These principles are:

Teaching and learning for understanding. All the schools' students participate seriously in the kind of learning that allows you to go on learning for a lifetime. This may well require a radical revision of the school's curriculum and instruction.

Creating a learning community. The ambitious kind of teaching and learning we hope for will take place in a sustained way for large numbers of children only if classrooms and schools are thoughtfully organized as communities of learning.

Teaching and learning for understanding for everybody's children. A major commitment of the Professional Development School will be overcoming the educational and social barriers raised by an unequal society.

Continuing learning by teachers, teacher educators, and administrators. In the Professional Development School, adults are expected to go on learning too.

Thoughtful, long-term inquiry into teaching and learning. This is essential to the professional lives of teachers, administrators, and teacher educators. The Professional Development School faculty working as partners will promote reflection and research on practice as a central aspect of the school.

Inventing a new institution. The foregoing principles call for such profound changes that the Professional Development School will need to devise for itself a different kind of organizational structure, supported over time by enduring alliances of all the institutions with a stake in better professional preparation for school faculty.

Both the Houston standards and the Holmes principles are ambitious in scope. They permit, even encourage, diverse practices. Implementing these practices in ways consistent with the mission envisioned for professional development schools will require attention to a number of organizational concerns. These include the concepts of shared purpose, supporting values, roles and work assignments, governance, and resources. A recurring theme in the general literature of organizations and that of professional development schools suggests that the parties who are to work in these schools should design them with attention to these concepts.

Shared Purpose

The concept of shared purpose or organizational vision has received much attention (see for example Peters & Waterman, 1982; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Schlechty, 1990). Briefly stated, the idea is that a shared vision of the future provides organizational direction, cohesiveness, and motivation for participants. It is especially important in organizations such as schools that are characterized by uncertainty in the relationships between actions and desired outcomes and where the relationships among workers are relatively unstructured. In other words, teachers who are largely autonomous in their classroom relationships with students and student teachers can be guided in making decisions by the sense of purpose or organizational vision shared with others in the building. Thus, teachers who work in a school that shares the vision that all children can learn are likely to teach differently than those in a school where this vision does not prevail.

In general terms, it would seem that individuals associated with professional development schools must regard them as sites for demonstrating exemplary practice, inducting new professionals, continuing their own development, and producing knowledge about teaching and learning. Building shared commitment to such a purpose statement is the essential first step

in establishing a professional development school. In some locales, participants have articulated a more focused statement of purpose. For example, the professional development school efforts in Jefferson County, Kentucky, have built upon a knowledge work metaphor (Schlechty & Joslin, 1984; Schlechty et al., 1988; Whitford & Hovda, 1986). According to this view, students are workers whose job is to produce knowledge by actively engaging in school work. Teachers, by extension of this argument, are viewed as leaders of knowledge workers, and principals are viewed as leaders of leaders. This conceptualization guides the work of school personnel and encourages teachers and principals to regard themselves as executives managing the work of others.

Supporting Values

In successful organizations, the values of the members are supportive of the organizational mission (Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Shared values are an important self-regulating mechanism for organizations. Particularly in professional organizations, individuals are likely to prefer that their behavior be guided by shared values rather than by detailed and prescriptive rules. As professional organizations, professional development schools are to be guided by professional norms. There is consensus about this point and about the fact that achieving it will require substantial change in schools. The Carnegie Forum emphasized this point:

> One of the most attractive aspects of professional work is the way professionals are treated in the workplace. Professionals are presumed to know what they are doing and are paid to exercise their judgment. Schools on the otherhand operate as if consultants, school district experts, textbook authors, trainers, and distant officials possess more relevant expertise than the teachers in schools. Bureaucratic management of schools proceeds from the view that teachers

> lack the talent or motivation to think for themselves. Properly staffed schools can only succeed if they operate on the principle that the essential resource is already inside the school: determined, intelligent and capable teachers. Such schools will be characterized by autonomy for the school as a whole and collegial relationships among its faculty (p. 25).

Another value essential to the future of professional development schools is that of collaboration between school and university personnel in ways that respect the professional contributions of all parties. As the Holmes Group notes, "We need the Professional Development School and the parity relationship because the university needs experienced, wise teachers to help us revise the curriculum of education studies. If we don't do that, the Professional Development School is only a clinical setting" (1990, p. 82). Achieving a model of collaboration on the basis of parity will be challenging due to long-standing differences in status, roles, rewards, and perceptions between schools and higher education. Schlechty and Whitford (1988) argue that the common ground for forging such a relationship is the professionalization of teaching and that the initial step must be development of a shared vision.

Other values have also been identified as essential to the professional development school culture. For example, Lieberman and Miller (1990) specified five elements of school culture essential to teacher development, which they define as "continuous inquiry into practice." These elements are "(1) norms of colleagueship, openness, and trust; (2) opportunities and time for disciplined inquiry; (3) teacher learning of content in context; (4) reconstruction of leadership roles, and (5) networks, collaborations and coalitions." Kennedy (1988) identified a climate that respects and fosters "deliberate action" as the most essential feature of professional development schools for the preparation of beginning teachers. In a longitudinal study of 24 schools, Ruscoe, Whitford, Egginton, and Esselman (1989, 1990) found

that teachers who feel the most empowered in their classrooms and schools also feel they have the greatest capacity to promote student learning. These views were especially strong in schools that espouse participatory management and those organized according to interdisciplinary teams.

Roles and Work Assignments

Professional development schools will have explicit responsibility for contributing to the education of beginning teachers and carrying out research about teaching and learning. Heretofore teachers and administrators have participated in such activities as an "add-on" to their "regular job" and/or on an informal basis as a favor to university colleagues. Teachers and administrators in professional development schools will do these things as part of their assigned responsibilities. As a consequence, new arrangements for staffing schools will be required. Most observers see these additional responsibilities as opportunities for job enlargement that are consistent with the values of professionalism.

The Carnegie Task Force (1986) envisioned differentiated roles for professional development school teachers. They proposed the role of lead teacher who would help organize their colleagues to accomplish curriculum work, provide supervision and technical support to other teachers, and coordinate the mentoring of beginning teachers and teacher education students. The Task Force also envisioned interns and teacher education students as part of the school work team along with support personnel such as paid aides and clerical assistants.

The Holmes Group (1986) initially proposed a three-tiered teaching force comprised of instructors, professional teachers, and career professional teachers. This differentiation would theoretically expand career opportunities for teachers and would assure that individuals with experience and

advanced preparation were available to assist with specialized roles such as curriculum planning, teacher education, and classroom research. The more recent Holmes report (1990) stresses the need for flexibility in staffing these schools, thereby building upon the respective professional strengths and interests of staff members.

Colleges and universities will also find that professional development schools call for changes in their faculty assignments and work relationships. It will be commonplace for university faculty to teach courses in professional development schools. However, rather than teach their course for three hours and return to campus for the remainder of the week, many of these faculty members will remain at the school for most, if not all, of the work week. They will be members of the staff, colleagues of the teachers assigned to the building. As such, they will help with the day-to-day tasks of the school--the development and delivery of exemplary programs, teacher education, and inquiry about teaching and learning.

Governance

Professional development schools will be called upon to carry out a number of governance functions. These would include acquiring and allocating resources, building an agenda of work activities, assigning responsibilities and providing necessary support to assure satisfactory progress on the school agenda, and maintaining positive relationships with clients, regulatory agencies, and other external groups.

Questions of governance are particularly delicate for professional development schools because they involve relationships between two established institutions--universities and school districts--that have limited experience and success in cooperative governance. It was skepticism about this pros-

pect that led Schlechty and Whitford (1986) to propose the establishment of a new, quasi-independent institution beyond the direct control of either party. Most observers, however, acknowledge that professional development schools will be located within public school systems. They propose that they be given extensive prerogatives for school-based management and that university faculty as well as teachers and building administrators be accorded membership on the building council or other body that makes and implements building-level decisions. The expectation is that professional development schools as they develop will manifest various forms of shared governance that recognize the professionalism of those who are involved.

Relations with clients, regulators, and other external bodies pose particular issues of accountability for those who work in professional development schools. As the Carnegie Task Force (1986) and others have noted, a willingness to be accountable for results is the corollary to the increased discretion enjoyed by professionals. Thus, as teachers and others achieve greater autonomy over decisions of what the curriculum should be and how to teach it, they accept the responsibility of communicating the results of their efforts and being accountable for them. Darling-Hammond (1986) notes that this responsibility is particularly great in professional development schools where professionals strive to define what constitutes best practice and take on the added responsibility of inducting new teachers. She further suggests that professional development schools can enhance their accountability to clients by functioning only as schools of choice and incorporating parent voices in procedures for shared governance, review and appeals processes, and decisions about their individual children.

Resources

To date, little if any inquiry has been conducted about the costs of professional development schools. Early efforts to establish them, however, have demonstrated that they do involve incremental costs. Staff develop-

ment, released time for teacher planning and participation in governance, and time to devote to mentoring teacher education students and mentors are readily identifiable cost categories.

Issues

The future of professional development schools will depend upon the ability of their proponents to deal with several issues. One mentioned above is the identification of financial resources to support them. At this point, it is difficult to predict what these costs might be. However, one indication that they will be substantial is that a Michigan partnership was recently created with the goal of establishing 18 to 24 schools across the state at an estimated cost of $48 million (Michigan, 1990). The State of Michigan; a Michigan business leader; and a consortium of Michigan State University, the University of Michigan, and Wayne State University each pledged $16 million to this partnership.

An issue more basic than funding professional development schools is resolving the differences in culture that exist among their principal actors--teachers, administrators, and university faculty. Brookhart and Loadman (1989) identified four cultural dimensions which these actors regard differently: work tempo, professional focus, career reward structure, and sense of personal power. Administrators feel more constrained by time and therefore tend to act faster and in more regimented fashion than teachers who are more time-oriented than university faculty. Teachers focus on more practical, day-to-day concerns than administrators and university faculty, in that order. University faculty are more concerned with long-term intrinsic rewards than administrators and teachers who especially value intrinsic rewards in the classroom. Finally, teachers see themselves as less powerful than administrators or university faculty. These findings from a study of 19 midwestern universities and affiliated schools raise questions about the

likelihood that individuals in both settings will be able to bridge their cultural differences. These differences are not necessarily insurmountable, but those who embark upon efforts at collaboration would do well to be mindful of them. Sensitivity to different cultures and the patience to work through differences arising from them are probably essential attributes for those who will succeed in school-university collaboration.

A related issue involves the willingness of both schools and universities to change established ways of doing things. Hierarchical staffing proposals for professional development schools have traditionally been opposed by teacher organizations. Proposals to staff professional development schools on the basis of teacher expertise rather than seniority run counter to the provisions of some union contracts. Efforts to enlarge the decision-making prerogatives of teachers will be resisted by some school principals. Numerous professional development school initiatives will require exemptions from district-wide or even state regulations. The question in every instance will be whether or not individuals will change.

The need for change is equally clear for universities. Perhaps the most central question here is whether colleges and universities are willing to modify their traditional reward structures in ways that acknowledge faculty contributions to professional development schools. As Lieberman observed, "It is the rare research university that encourages its professors to spend their time describing professional practice and, even more rare, rewards them for such efforts" (1987, p. 404). Colleges and universities also need to reconsider the status which they accord to school colleagues. Goodlad (1990) observes that while institutions regularly seek help from schools in supervising student teachers, they are far less likely to involve school personnel in decisions about the curriculum for teacher education. In order to be successful collaborators, university personnel must address status issues--both for the work of their own faculty in schools and for the contributions of school personnel to teacher education and school-based research. True

collaboration depends upon parity among the participants.

Yet another issue concerns equity (Zimpher, 1990). Professional development schools will be schools that offer special programs with the benefit of resources not available to all. The university will contribute to this additional resource base. What criteria should guide universities and school districts as they select sites for professional development schools? Questions about the composition of the student body, the makeup of the faculty, and the length of university commitment to a single site must engage decision makers concerned about equity. Because it is unlikely that a college or university will be associated with enough professional development school sites (at least in the near future) to assure that all teacher education students can receive all field-based preparation at one of them, questions of equity and access will also arise within the university.

Conclusion

Professional development schools offer significant promise for restructuring university-school district relationships around a common agenda of modeling exemplary practice, preparing teachers, and conducting research. Central to the success of such efforts will be the development of shared vision regarding the teaching profession and the establishment of norms that emphasize parity among and respect for members of the profession who occupy different roles, reflectiveness about teaching and learning for all who populate such schools, and shared governance. Individuals who succeed in establishing such schools will manifest great perseverance and commitment to the concept. Such resolve will be necessary to surmount the status, bureaucratic, and cultural differences that have traditionally separated school and university personnel.

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